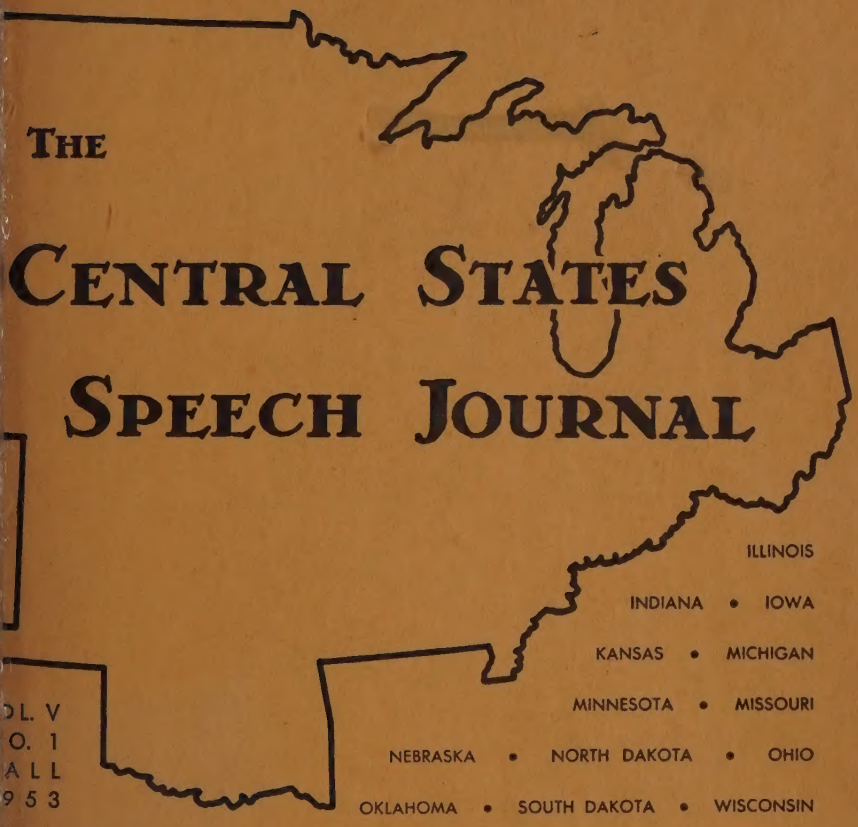

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Memorandum from the Executive Secretary of the C.S.S.A.

To Members of the Central States Speech Association:

The office of the Executive Secretary should perform three principal functions: (1) provide services to the members and the other friends of the Association, (2) promote membership drives, conventions, advertising, and other activities, and (3) serve as custodian of the records.

The success of the first two of these functions depends primarily upon the friendly interest of those of you who read this letter. Please let me know how this office can serve you better, and please send any suggestions that you may have for publicizing the convention, for increasing membership, or for carrying out any of our other activities.

If you have any questions concerning our organization, I will be glad to answer them. The following paragraphs contain the most important news of the last six months.

Our 1953 convention was highly successful with more than five hundred persons registered. Notwithstanding this fact, the Association was still in debt at the close of the convention. Much of the indebtedness is in the form of a loan of eight hundred dollars granted to us in December, 1952, by the Speech Association of America.

The only change in the Constitution was an increase in the fee for attending the annual conference from $1.50 to $2.00. This change was ratified by a referendum vote of 126 to 6.

Other business transacted at the last convention, excepting the appointment and the election of new officers, was of a routine nature. The Executive Committee appointed Dr. Kim Giffin to succeed Dr. Paul Moore as editor of the *Journal*. Those present at the business meeting voted to accept the report of the nominating committee (John Keltner, William Sattler, and John Black) and to declare the slate elected: president-elect, Max Fuller, Grinnell College; vice-president, Dorothy I. Summers, East Central College, Ada, Oklahoma. The two other new officers in 1953, President John Dietrich and I, were chosen at the 1952 convention.

Yours sincerely,
Wayne N. Thompson
Executive Secretary, CSSA

The Editorial Policy of the Central States Speech Journal

Our editorial policy is based upon the following four concepts suggested by the Central States Speech Association Advisory Council:

1. Two issues annually, 32 pages each, published in November and March; deadlines are October 15 and February 15.
2. Services performed well by the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* and other periodicals should not be needlessly duplicated.
3. Emphasis should be placed on ideas which are useful to the classroom teacher.
4. All areas of our profession, including drama, speech correction, radio, etc., should be represented effectively.

Manuscripts most acceptable will be those which satisfy the above requirements. Suggested length is "less than 4,000 words."

The style most desirable is that suggested in the "M.L.A. Style Sheet." (Write to the treasurer of the Modern Language Association of America, 100 Washington Square East, New York 3, New York; price, 10c.)

Manuscripts submitted for consideration will be evaluated by a panel of consulting editors.

Manuscripts should be sent to Kim Giffin, Editor, *Central States Speech Journal*, Department of Speech and Drama, University of Kansas.

The cost of Journal article reprints is as follows (Add shipping and billing expense of $1.00 per order):

	1 page	2 pp.	4 pp.	8 pp.	16 pp.
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Charge will be made for a minimum of 100 reprints. The press will bill the author directly with fully itemized bill, showing the shipping and billing expense.

Discussion Re-examined

William S. Howell and Donald K. Smith

I. Introduction

Academicians outside of speech are writing more about discussion than are people in speech. This is significant, and so is the fact that their contributions to discussion literature more often than not quote authorities and sources in disciplines *other than speech.* Indeed, many prominent and influential books and articles on discussion include no mention of any work in discussion having been done by anyone in speech.[1] One result is that our colleagues in education and psychology frequently register surprise that course titled *Discussion* appears in the offerings of a speech department.

Yet, much of the pioneering that established discussion instruction in secondary and higher education was done by speech teachers and speech departments. At about the end of the first quarter some opponent tackled the ball, another recovered the fumble, and we haven't had possession since. The score run up by our rivals hasn't been totaled.

Before becoming pessimistic and conceding, or whipping up a frothy optimism from the belief that our achievements in discussion will sooner or later receive the recognition they deserve, we might re-examine the basic premises and central concepts of that segment of speech education termed "discussion." Some effort to get together on the fundamentals of discussion could possibly result in speech teachers making more sense as a group than do any of our oddly assorted friends in other departments who write prescriptions for discussants and discussion leaders.

That we have been "getting apart" instead of "getting together" on an approach to training people in discussion is pretty obvious. Activities that bear the label "discussion" are legion. Purposes of the study and practice of discussion are assorted. We have collected many ideas from work done in discussion in numerous related fields. We have neither digested nor assimilated these in orderly fashion. Now is a good time for us to pause along the way to think and talk about the nature of the discussion process, and to develop the implications of the interesting things we now know about discussion.

This article is designed to suggest some arbitrary interpretations of important information in the belief that some central concepts need to be spelled out if we are to advance toward agreement. Many of these interpretations are not new to speech teachers familiar with the literature on discussion in our own field. But we seek to relate these traditional interpretations to the views of discussion held by some of the enthusiastic newcomers to discussion literature, to establish what we hope is a reasonable platform for efficient

1. Examples are Nathaniel Cantor, *Learning Through Discussion,* Human Relations for Industry, Buffalo, N. Y., 1951; H. A. Thelen and R. W. Tyler, "Implications for Improving Instruction in the High School" in *Learning and Instruction,* National Society for the Study of Education, 49:1, 1950.

Mr. Howell (Ph.D., Wisconsin, 1942) and Mr. Smith (Ph.D., Wisconsin, 1950) are Associate Professors in the Department of Speech and Theater Arts, University of Minnesota.

instruction and practice in discussion. We assume the desirability of agreement of speech teachers on definition and basic principles of discussion.

II. Definition

Nearly all Americans are active participants in discussion. This is true because nearly all Americans have problems in common with others. And for many sorts of problems, no procedure other than discussion is likely to produce a satisfactory solution.

Of course there are problems which men solve alone—without seeking the counsel, or criticism, or thinking of other men. Self reliance is a virtue when applied to the many small decisions each of us makes daily.

Does my suit need pressing?

What should I have for breakfast?

Is it wise for me to play golf this afternoon?

But there are other problems whose solutions seem to call for discussion as inevitably as living plants call for sunshine and moisture. For example, consider the following problems which have confronted groups of Americans in our recent past:

1. (June 25, 1950. South Korea has been invaded.) What sort of military action, if any, should the United States take to protect the independence of South Korea?

2. (September, 1953. The highway accident rate in America has reached an all-time high.) What sort of action can government (education, business, religion, etc.) take at this time to reduce highway accidents?

3. (August, 1953. Russia successfully exploded a "thermo-nuclear" device.) What changes, if any, should be made in the planning and conduct of civilian defense in the United States?

4. (1953. Farm income in the United States is declining.) What should be the policy of the Federal Government relative to agricultural production and prices?

There is no question that these problems, and thousands of others like them, were and are the subject of important discussions. Can we, by examining these problems, observe that they have certain characteristics which make them so inevitably "discussable"?

1. These are problems concerning which decisions must be made, even though no inevitably *right* decision is possible. In making decisions, the rightness of which must be matters of probability rather than of fact, men wisely turn to discussion. Democratic government has always assumed that group decision-making increases the probability of wise decision-making. Research into the products of group and individual thinking tends to confirm this assumption.

2. These are problems concerning which no one person possesses all the relevant knowledge, skills, or right to take action. Modern technology extends constantly the number of problems whose solutions involve knowledge or skill beyond the reach of any one person. Democratic government assumes the undesirability of giving to one person the unlimited right to take action in important matters.

3. The solutions of these problems will affect vitally the interests of a number of people. The wisdom of a decision which affects the lives of many persons is closely involved in the acceptability of that decision to the persons concerned. Of course, people may be, and often must be, persuaded to accept decisions made by other persons. But no process so assures the acceptability of a decision as the process of participating in the

making of that decision.

Discussion, then, is a fact in the lives of nearly all Americans. It is also a fact that few Americans have been trained in discussion, and that many of the discussions in which we participate, or which we observe, are predominantly excess verbiage and misdirected energy.

Discussion should bring people closer to one another, and it often does. But it may also alienate people, and it often does.

Discussion should cause evidence and opinion to be tested by close and critical examination, and it sometimes does. But it also may result in a verbose pooling of ignorance, with opinions of all sorts receiving a polite welcome and little or no intellectual scrutiny.

We face the paradox that discussion is the only process by which we may improve our handling of many of the serious problems we face, and yet this vital process is so often misused, or poorly used, that its possibilities go unrealized.

The foregoing paragraphs suggest that we do not consider all talk among people as discussion. Rather, *discussion occurs when two or more persons exchange and criticize ideas and information in an effort to understand or solve a problem.* Discussion usually occurs in face-to-face situations, with the exchange being spoken, and if more than two persons are involved, it usually occurs under the direction of a leader.

We have now stipulated a rather narrow definition of discussion. Many of the activities in our society which are called "discussion" fall outside this definition, and are not, therefore, the direct concern of the discussion teacher.

Notice that we have said that discussion is *purposive.* That is, the spoken exchange occurs for the purpose of understanding or solving a problem.Thus, much of the aimless or undirected social conversation in which we participate is not discussion. Small talk, with its disconnected cliches, polite comments about the weather, or impolite comments about "friends not present," is not discussion. Conversation may develop into discussion, but it usually begins with a lack of specific purpose, a lack of a commonly realized problem, and therefore proceeds without the limitation of an end to be sought.

Notice that we have said that discussion involves the *effort to understand or to solve a problem.* By implication then, the discussant is one who is *in search* of conclusions, not one "who has all the answers." The discussant talks because his thinking is not completed. He talks with the expectation that *development* will occur in his thinking as the talk proceeds. Talk among persons who believe that they understand completely or have solved a problem is not discussion. Whatever the form taken by this talk, whatever the outward resemblance of the activity to discussion, the effort by persons to persuade one another to particular, preconceived conclusions is not discussion. The activity which results when people seek to persuade others to particular, preconceived actions, or beliefs, we shall call *advocacy.* The relationship between the discussant, who is *in search of* answers, and the advocate who wishes to *sell* answers, is a complex one, and leads to many misunderstandings about the part played by argument in discussion.

Notice that we have said that discussion involves *exchange and criticism.* Most persons have some skill in

exchanging opinions, and such information as they may possess. That is to say, they send messages to other persons which contain information and opinions, and these messages are received, or understood, with varying degrees of accuracy. But exchange, by itself, is not sufficient to discussion. Discussion assumes that the message proposed by one person is subjected to immediate, public examination by others. It is this *criticism* of information and opinion which distinguishes discussion from much of conversation.

We have, then, limited our definition of discussion to a particular form of discourse. We shall apply the term to discourse which is, or purports to be:

A. purposive

B. in search of answers: understanding or solutions

C. concerned with *criticism*, as well as *exchange* of information

Discussion, then, is recognizable not simply by the outward form of the discourse—by the fact that it involves two or more persons, or that it has a leader—but rather by the purposes and procedures of the persons who talk with one another.

III. *Pseudo-Discussion*

We have already indicated that the activity of many groups which purport to be discussing problems bears only superficial resemblance to discussion as previously defined. Here are three types of pseudo-discussion.

A. *Advocacy cloaked in the discussion form.*

Research has shown that audiences are frequently much influenced by the conclusions reached by a group of discussants who, sitting around a table, analyze "impartially" the evidence and opinion relative to a certain problem. It is not surprising, therefore, that enterprising advocates of particular points of view frequently use so-called public discussions as a means of propaganda. An extreme example of this is the discussion organized by a campaign manager during a political campaign to "talk over impartially" the issues of a coming election. The experts, of course, all happened to be of one political persuasion, and they proceeded to bring out their point of view under the guise of impartial, critical examination of the evidence about the campaign.

Akin to this "propaganda discussion" is the discussion instigated by an advocate who conceals the fact that he has a particular program which he wishes to sell to the discussion group. The advocate may have, let us say, a program for re-zoning certain areas of his community. But he feels that his ideas would have greater force if they were presented to the community not as the product of his own thinking, but as the product of the deliberation of a problem-solving group of prominent citizens. He organizes the group for the ostensible purpose of considering zoning problems in his city—but his actual purpose is to sell the group on supporting and recommending the plan he has already worked out.

B. *The Discussion Form Used by a Status-Dominated Group.*

A common form of pseudo-discussion is found in the deliberations of groups dominated by one or a small clique of persons. Such groups usually consist of a leader, and a group of "yes-men." The deliberations of the group are a sort of ritual in which the members of the group vie with one another in praising the opinions

of the leader. Classroom discussions, in the hands of some teachers, can tend toward this form.

The status-dominated group tends to be most obvious when the members of the group are financially or physically dependent upon a group leader. Witness the familiar stereotype of the motion picture producer and his claque of "yes-men." In such a group, most of the alleged discussants are simply competing with one another in the task of discovering and giving approval to the real opinions of the member who has status.

C. *The Discussion Form Used for an Explicit Purpose Other than the Solving of the Stated Problem*

Because many persons find participation in discussion a pleasurable activity, it is not surprising that the discussion form is often used for a purpose other than arriving at some solution to a stated problem. Thus, the members of a club which is declining for lack of an interested and enthusiastic membership, may decide that a good way to restore interest and enthusiasm in the membership would be through participation in discussion. If this group discusses, "How Can We Promote Interest and Enthusiasm in Our Club?" then the content of their discussion concerns the explicit problem which they confront, and they may take part in a real discussion. If they discuss: "How Can We Reduce Cheating in Examinations at X College?"—when their real, central purpose is to promote interest and enthusiasm in their membership, then the content of the discussion is irrelevant to the explicit purpose of the group, and the discussion assumes a pseudo-form.

It would be a mistake to assume that pseudo-discussion, as we have here defined it, is an unethical or unworthy form of discourse. Our purpose in calling attention to pseudo-discussion is simply to highlight the unique values of discussion in problem solving, and thus to sharpen the focus of students who study discussion and teachers who seek to develop discussion skills.

(EDITOR'S NOTE: This article is the first in a series of two articles by Mr. Howell and Mr. Smith. In the March issue they will continue their examination of discussion by presenting their views on the purposes of training students in discussion.)

BOOKS DESIRED

Anyone desiring to sell any of the books listed below is invited to write to Dr. Carl A. Pitt, University of Illinois, Navy Pier, Chicago 11, Illinois and to indicate the books owned and the selling price:

Baldwin, Charles S. *Medieval Rhetoric and Poetic* (N.Y. 1928) Macmillan Co.

Blair, Hugh *Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres* (1783)

Goodrich, Chauncey A. *Select British Eloquence* (N.Y. 1854) Harper and Bros.

Jebb, R.C. *The Attic Orators* (London 1893) Macmillan Co.

Shaw, Warren C. *History of American Oratory* (Indianapolis 1928) Bobbs Merrill Co.

(*Editor's Note*: In each issue we shall be happy to publish requests for books desired as a service to subscribers.)

Functional Relationships of Speech Correction to the Regular Classroom

D. E. Morley

These are functional times. These are practical times. We evaluate the new chair we plan to buy, or the bed lamp, or the radio-phonograph in terms of their potential effectiveness. We scrutinize the role of the teacher, the capacity of the pupils, the service of the schools, the effectiveness of the school program. And in like manner we now turn to speech correction and the regular classroom and look for functional relationships between them.

A two-fold question is directed to teachers in each of these groups: "In what ways can speech correction serve the regular classroom, *and* in what ways can the regular classroom serve speech correction?" Observe that the word "serve" has been employed.[1]

Before offering suggestions which could well be the answers made by the respective groups, it may make those suggestions more meaningful to turn aside for a moment to review some general considerations related to education, special education and speech correction.

Darrel B. Harmon[2] says that the aim of education and of mental hygiene) is the development and training of the individual for effective living in a social environment. He adds that education is concerned with leading the child toward habits and attitudes that make him better able to attack his life problems.

Carl R. Rogers[3] points out that it is generally agreed that the school can help the child by providing the satisfaction of achievement, helping him to utilize special abilities, and helping him to improve his skill in basic subjects. "For the child, the school experience represents the greatest single potential resource for the satisfaction of achievement. Here are the possibilities for the satisfaction of achievement, for every child, in line with his interests, and with healthy, meaningful purpose."[4] "The teacher must genuinely feel that each child has a need to succeed just as she herself had a need to succeed."[5]

C. E. A. Wilson[6] summarizes the principles of modern education by saying that it is directed toward developing self-confidence, self-respect, self-management, courage, the ability to take responsibility, the ability to overcome difficulties and to carry things through to completion, friendliness, sympathy and cooperation with others, the development and expression of affection, tolerance of differences, the sharing of experience, the freer expression of initiative and creative abilities and interests, freedom from the stigma of guilt and

(1) Cf. American Council on Education, Commission on Teachers Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, (Washington, D.C., 1945).

(2) Harmon, Darrel B., "The Teacher and Delinquency from the Mental Hygiene Point of View," *Jour. Educ. Psych.*, XII (Oct., 1938), pp. 78-86

(3) Rogers, Carl R., *The Clinical Treatment of the Problem Child.* (New (York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939), p. 222.

(4) *ibid*, p. 230

(5) *ibid*, p. 232.

(6) Wilson, C. E. A., in *The School Health Program.* (New York: The Regents' Inquiry, 1938), pp. 22-23.

Mr. Morley (Ph.D., Michigan 1949) is an Associate Professor in the Department of Speech, University of Michigan. He is also Senior Speech Therapist of the Institute for Human Adjustment Speech Clinic of the Horace Rackham School of Graduate Studies.

shame, the ability to acknowledge an occasional defect frankly, the honest facing of unpleasant realities, and capacity for assuming and submitting to authority in a spirit of goodwill.

These writers have indicated aims and a philosophy of education which provide the classroom teacher with a multi-faceted goal. In many respects it is also the goal of the speech correctionist.

Within comparatively recent years the term "special education" has been added to education's nomenclature. And equally recent has come the recognition of "speech correction."[7]

Special education, especially speech correction, has not remained an isolated phase of education. The practice had been to separate the "different" children from other children in the schools, losing sight of the fact that there are apt to be many similarities as well as the differences.

It was found, however, to be sound educational practice to return the defective children to the association of other children whenever feasible. Such has been the trend in speech correction. With certain exceptions where speech disorders are concomitants of severe physical or psychological involvements, speech defective children spend most of their time in the regular classroom, meeting with the speech correctionist at regularly scheduled periods.

Now, having reviewed the aims of general education and having pointed to the trend toward collaboration with special education in the solution of problems of handicapped youngsters, it is time to answer the first part of the two-fold question—In what ways can speech correction serve the regular classroom?

In schools fortunate enough to have the services of a speech correctionist, a remedial program is made available to speech handicapped children. The speech correctionist arranges to discover and diagnose children with impaired speech (often with the help of the classroom teacher) and provides treatment in the form of remedial classes, suitable referrals, and cooperation with persons who can assist in needed supplementary therapy.

Just how many children can receive the benefits of this service is determined in large part by the size of the school population in which the correctionist works, the amount of time the correctionist has available, the legislative requirements as to minimum and maximum pupil load, how much travelling is required between schools, and the incidence of speech defects at various school grade levels.

In many ways speech correctionists strive to contribute their share in helping children to become assets to society, rather than liabilities, in spite of heavy case loads, unsatisfactory working conditions, almost impossible scheduling difficulties, interruptions caused by other school activities, burdening responsibility of home and school conferences, the indifference of some teachers and parents, and a hundred and one difficult situations and time demands. In spite of these difficulties, many speech correctionists serve the regular classroom by being on the job to assist the classroom teacher to lead the children with defective speech toward habits and attitudes that will make them better able to attack their life problems.

(7) Anderson, Jeanette, "The State of Speech Correction," *Quar. Jour. of Speech*, XXXIII (February, 1947.)

In many areas speech correctionists serve the classroom by stimulating children with speech problems to take more active part in classroom activities. Where speech correction teachers incorporate classroom material into the speech correction lessons, it has been observed that there is an increased interest in classroom affairs by the children and increasing ease in participation.

Other speech correctionists offer themselves as consultants in regard to general classroom instruction in speech. Still others find time to confer with classroom teachers not only on problems of the speech of children in speech correction classes but also their academic, social, and emotional needs.

The busy speech correctionist, and especially the beginning speech correctionist, becomes very much aware of responsibilities to the children in the remedial classes, obligations to classroom teachers, principals, and parents, the need for functional teaching methods and materials, the need for reports and professional contacts, and physical demands of close scheduling and teaching loads. In the midst of all this there is a real danger that the correctionist will lose a sense of humor, a sense of perspective, and insight into the fundamental purposes of the work.

Speech correction has had to be demonstrated and "sold" to school systems before it arrived at its increasingly accepted position in the educational framework of today's schools. Unfortunately there are still some speech correction teachers who have either been trying to "sell" speech correction so long that they have developed a "specialist" attitude which does not admit that the less informed teachers can have any ideas or observations concerning children with speech defects, or they are so new to the field of speech correction that they are dazzled by the prospects of rescuing unfortunate speech handicapped children single-handed.

There are also those speech correctionists who irritate others by proceeding to set up a speech correction program which practically excludes consideration of other school aims and activities and to which all must bow. The point here is that speech correctionists in some areas are still guilty of high pressure selling methods. It is not to be inferred from this criticism that the speech correction teacher must be a passive, obeisant character. It is to be hoped, however, that over-aggressiveness and/or overenthusiasm will be tempered to effective, thorough-going, cooperative, authoritative management of the problems of speech defective children. Speech correction can serve the regular classroom by operating on this basis.

Turn now to the second part of the two-fold question: In what ways can the regular classroom serve speech correction? Certain goals of education have been reviewed earlier. It was pointed out that the generally accepted aim of education is the development and training of the individual for effective living in a social environment. Each child is to be led toward habits and attitudes that make him able to attack his life problems.

The regular classroom teacher who has adopted this or a similar philosophy of teaching children will recognize the need for sharing the interest of the speech correctionist in the speech handicapped child, striving to understand the problems of such a child, and within the limits of her experience, cooperating in identify-

ing and providing for such a child.

Many classroom teachers do strive to understand what speech correctionists are trying to do. To some, however, the work seems to be very technical and hence beyond their realm of interest. To others it seems unnecessary in that talking is such a commonplace activity that nature will work out solutions for each child—speech correction appears to them to be an educational frill.

But speech handicapped children and the means for meeting their needs can offer a real opportunity for learning on the part of the classroom teacher. It is hoped that eventually all college and university students who are candidates for elementary or secondary teaching certificates will be required to take at least one course which will enable them to recognize children with defective speech and which will give them some insight into problems of speech analysis and therapy needs. It has been noted that many teachers in the field are feeling that their education has been incomplete without such course work.

In courses designed for classroom teachers and others who have had no special preparation in speech correction work, taught off the university campus, one frequently hears comments such as, "I wish I had had some of this work before" or "I think this course should be required of all teachers." For the teacher who has not had or does not have access to course work in speech correction, there is still the speech correctionist to turn to.

From the correctionist the classroom teacher can learn much about recognizing and understanding the various kinds of problems defective speech imposes on children. In spite of the sectarianisms of today's school program, one need not feel embarrassed by having to say, "I'm interested. Tell me about it. Show me what I can do to help. I'm in a position to expedite your program."

The classroom teacher can affect the personal and social adjustment of the speech defective child by guiding him toward "self-confidence, self-respect, the ability to take responsibility, the ability to carry things through to completion, the sharing of experience, the freer expression of initiative and creative ability, freedom from the stigma of guilt and shame, the ability to acknowledge an occasional defect frankly." Earlier these attributes were quoted from C. E. A. Wilson in summarizing principles of modern education. How admirably they suit the needs of children with defective speech!

The terms "regular classroom" and "speech correction" come to life when they are considered as agencies dealing with children. They are interdependent, for the children involved need the best each has to offer.

The regular classroom can contribute to the development and training of the speech defective child through teachers who are willing to learn about the problems of such children, who cooperate with the speech correctionists in providing for the speech handicapped child, and who expedite the correction program whenever possible.

Speech correction can contribute by being on the job with a program which is effective in its detection, diagnosis and therapy for the child with a speech disorder, by instruction which is not isolated from the rest of the school activities of the child and by being ready to serve as consultant, teacher, and helper to the regular classroom teachers.

Factors in Listening to Informative and Persuasive Speeches

Earnest S. Brandenburg

Few attempts have been made to explain with documentary evidence the similarities and differences between listening to speeches to inform and speeches to persuade. This question demands experimental study and research. I do not doubt that such studies will be made in the next few years. In the meantime, however, we have students who need to be taught today. Their listening skills can profit from what we do know and from what we can logically assume on the basis of the controlled studies which have been made.

Professor Nichols' article in *Speech Monographs*[1] points out the items which influence listening comprehension. Undoubtedly, those factors he mentioned—intelligence, reading comprehension, vocabulary, correct English usage, ability to make inferences, ability to see the organizational plan, and real interest in the subject discussed—apply to listening comprehension of persuasive materials as well as to informative speaking.

The significant point to be made here, is that the first requisite of a good listener is that he understand exactly what the speaker says. The most important task we have in teaching listening is to increase efficiency in acquiring material. Nichols' study, which found that on the average 200 subjects comprehended only 68% of the material tested after a ten minute presentation[2], gives us some indication of the fact that we have a tremendous task.

There is also much consistent evidence that students of high intelligence are not much better listeners than their schoolmates. P. T. Rankin's oft-quoted study in 1930[3] indicated that bright students were not always superior listeners. Goldstein's report in 1940[4] and an article by Harlen Adams in 1947 actually show "that the slow learning pupil often listens better than the bright child." Or, we might refer to a study by Larsen and Feder which found, "Those low in scholastic aptitude and general reading ability comprehended almost as well by reading as by listening . . . The group high in scholastic aptitude showed a definite superiority in reading comprehension."[6] All of these results seem to me to prove that somehow we are failing to give the more intelligent students the ability to listen which they could easily acquire.

To my knowledge, no one who has ever tried to teach listening has come through that experience with the conclusion that listening can not be

1. Nichols, Ralph G., "Factors in Listening Comprehension," *Speech Monographs*, XV (1948), pp. 154-63.

2. *Ibid*

3. Rankin, Paul T., "Listening Ability: Its Importance, Measurement, and Development," Chicago Schools Journal XII (January, 1930), pp. 177-79.

4. Goldstein, Harry, *Reading and Listening Comprehension at Various Controlled Rates* (New York: Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 821, Columbia University, 1940).

5. Adams, Harlen, "Learning to be Discriminating Listeners," *English Journal* XXXVI (January, 1947), pp. 11-15.

6. Larsen, Robert P., and D. D. Feder, "Common and Differential Factors in Reading and Hearing Comprehension," *Journal of Educational Psychology* XXXI (April, 1940), pp. 241-52.

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taught. Those who have had experience in this field agree with Rankin who said that "it can be developed."[7] We could go back to Tucker's article in 1925[8] or to O'Reilly's 1927 article[9] to find strong statements that the techniques of listening can and should be taught.[10]

The teaching of listening can be advocated for many reasons. I particularly want to stress, however, FIRST, that the correlation between intelligence and listening seems consistently lower than that between intelligence and reading (and we know that reading is rarely performed anywhere near the potential capabilities of students), and then SECONDLY, that all evidence points to listening as a skill which can be taught. These two concepts seem to be very hopeful and inspiring factors.

Our common conception is that the best informative speech relies heavily upon factual materials. Speakers get us to draw conclusions or to understand concepts through their presentation of facts and inferences. To be intelligent listeners, we must recognize a "fact" when we hear it. We must also be able to spot concepts the speaker is attempting to forward, but for which he has offered little or no support. Obviously, this ability is also required of listeners to persuasive speech.

Traditional concepts of persuasive speech stress that it relies heavily upon the citation of facts and authorities (logical proof) to be well done. But persuasive speaking frequently is based predominantly on emotional appeal. To be good listeners, we must be able to recognize attempts to arouse our emotions. We must recognize what the speaker wants us to believe. Beyond that we must also ask ourselves constantly, "Why does he want us to believe this? What are his motives? What will he gain or lose by our beliefs?"

Of importance here is Professor Nichols' finding that good listeners are more objective and unemotional than poor listeners when disagreeing with a point of view expressed by a speaker.[11] Listening to persuasive materials poses an additional burden upon a listener to judge the data unemotionally and to be objective. Good listeners can do this; poor listeners are less successful. Obviously we should help poor listeners toward becoming good listeners by training them to recognize the motive behind the speaker's words, to subdue their emotional responses when listening to persuasive materials, and to be aware of attempts made to arouse their emotions.

To be objective, to be able to evaluate persuasive materials, a listener must have some knowledge of the principles of reasoning and supporting evidence. Most good debate text books devote sections to the tests of various kinds of arguments. Students learn, for example, that testimony (the use of authority) is desirable and effective proof, providing the person quoted is competent, unprejudiced and consistent. Debate students usually (and should, always) realize that specific instances (examples) are convincing, providing there are

7. *Op. cit.*
8. Tucker, W. S., "The Science of Listening," *Nineteenth Century*, XCVII (April, 1925), pp. 548-57.
9. O'Reilly, F. J., "Listening," *English Journal*, XVI (September, 1927), pp. pp. 548-50.
10. Cf. John Adams, *Making the Most of One's Mind* (New York, George H. Doran Co., 1915), pp. 213-39.
11. *Op. Cit.*

a sufficient number of instances, providing the instances are typical, and providing there are no outstanding contrary examples.

A knowledge of some of the common methods of ignoring the essential question—discussion of personalities, shifting ground, appeals to passions or prejudices—a knowledge of how these devices are used will certainly help our students to be better listeners. We can, of course, go as far as we like. The tests and principles of syllogistic reasoning seem to be of importance in the well-rounded education, but probably one should not try to teach them to a typical group of people whose listening skill is of primary concern.

The point is that debate text books do offer us a considerable body of material that may well be utilized to improve listening to persuasive speaking. And, of course, some public speaking text books contain excellent sections on supporting materials, on the factors which make proof acceptable and convincing.

Still other sources are available. In recent years, a considerable body of literature on the techniques of reading has come into print. Many of these handbooks stress and provide exercises to help obtain "the faculty of alert skepticism." Denotation as distinguished from connotation, inductive reasoning as distinguished from deductive reasoning—sections on such principles can also help to prepare students to listen more intelligently.

During World Wars I and II, a flood of articles and books discussed propaganda techniques. To quote from the Institute for Propaganda Analysis, "We are fooled by propaganda chiefly because we don't recognize it when we see it."[12] You ma or may not approve such titles fo different propaganda techniques a the Name Calling device, the Glitte ing Generalities device, the Plai Folks device, the Card Stacking de vice, and the Band Wagon devic However, some systematic study o the so-called propaganda technique could be of great help in improvin our abilities to listen to persuasiv speech.

Perhaps you are not impressed b these secondary sources available t us. Perhaps you will want to go di rectly to Aristotle, Locke, Mill, Her bart, Bacon, or Dewey. The princi ples of formal logic, of psychology of philosophy, form the groundwor for the approach here advocated.

If you are a General Semanticist you have been squirming in you chair the last few minutes. You hav been thinking of how worthwhile thi article might have been if only th writer had talked of levels of abstrac tion and the basic premise of non identity. The study of General Se mantics could tremendously improv the ability of people to listen to per suasive speech.

Whatever approach we decide t use to provide students with handle by which they may grasp the elusiv problem of critical listening, we mus realize that listening is a skill. Guid ed practice and drill can do muc to improve innate abilities. Th National Council of Teachers of Eng lish has a booklet on *Skill in Listen ing*. It explains well that "as w listen, we must weigh the evidenc against our own opinions yet follo the speaker as he continues to mak his point. Often we cannot pause t

12. *Propaganda Analysis* (New York, In stitute for Propaganda Analysis, 1938) I, p. 5.

expand a metaphor or to examine a point, lest we lose the thread of the argument. We must store the idea consciously for future reference."[13] All of which emphasizes the fact that effective listening is not a simple ability, that a cursory review of the principles of fallacious reasoning or of propaganda analysis will not help listening unless we provide our students with exercises which will enable constant evaluation of abilities to apply the principles learned.

A real danger exists that, as a result of the type of program here sketched, some students might assume a cynical, pseudo-sophisticated attitude. To condemn all persuasion as propaganda and all salesmanship as trickery is not a desirable end. Such a perversion of purpose must be avoided. Yet an important value of training in listening to persuasive speech is that it can provide a degree of protection for our citizenry.

In consideration of the factors involved in listening to informative as compared and contrasted with listening to persuasive speech, the common factors far outweigh the differences. Checking the recency, competency, and freedom from prejudice of materials presented in both kinds of speeches is highly desirable. The prime requisite of good listening in any situation is an active understanding of the ideas presented.

To get students to evaluate critically, and this is required more for the persuasive than for the informative type of speech, we as teachers can profitably draw upon approaches which have been developed for us in logic, in debate, in general speech, in reading guides, in propaganda analyses, and in General Semantics.

The important factor is that students be given some acceptable, practical approach to enable them to recognize weak reasoning. The person who says, "Omaha is a dirty city; I saw two candy wrappers lying on the sidewalk," can be recognized as guilty of hasty generalization from any one of several approaches. But, if we are going to teach a useful, workable philosophy of listening we must include training in critical analysis.

He knows not when to be silent who knows not when to speak.—Publicius Syrus, *Maxim 930.*

It is not necessary to finish your sentences in a crowd, but by a sort of mumble, omitting sibilants and dentals. This indeed, if your words fail you, answers even in public extempore speech, but better where other talking is going on.—Edward Everett Hale, *My Double and How He Undid Me*

Monkeys, who very sensibly refrain from speech, lest they should be set to earn their living.—Kenneth Grahame, *The Golden Age. The Finding of the Princess.*

Speech is civilization itself. The word, even the most contradictory word, preserves contact—it is silence which isolates.—Thomas Mann, *The Magic Mountain.*

Discretion of speech is more than eloquence; and to speak agreeably to him with whom we deal is more than to speak in good words or in good order.—Francis Bacon, *Of Discourse.*

13. Sterner, Alice, Katharine Saunders, and Milton Kaplan, *Skill in Listening* (Chicago, National Council of Teachers of English, 1944), p. 8.

The Function of Debate

Wilder W. Crane, Jr.

It is very easy to become so involved with the routine affairs and the minor crises of debate that one loses sight of its objectives. Naturally, a debate program may be used to train students in the art of public speaking. The importance of learning that art should not be minimized; however, a debate program cannot justify itself solely on the ground that it is providing speech training if it is to be consistent with the purposes of general education.

Debate should be regarded as a tool subject; i. e., a subject which is worthwhile only insofar as it has transfer value. It follows from this criterion that the most important aspects of debate are: thorough research on one subject, argument on both sides of the proposition, and group discussion and cooperation.

Research on one subject throughout the debate season accustoms students to scholarly investigation. Probably students do more comprehensive research on their debate topic than they do on any other single subject with the possible exception of theses.

Research on one subject throughout the year, moreover, forces students to face the complexity of those social issues on which they often make quick and superficial judgments. If there is transfer of this debate experience, it should make the student more careful in his political thinking, and it is, therefore, of great importance for the success of democratic government.

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Debating on both sides of a proposition results in making students considerably less dogmatic and less prejudiced. It is one thing to know that there are arguments against one's own beliefs; to appreciate the weight of such arguments, however, it is often necessary to be able to defend them.

One debater came to college from a conservative, isolationist, midwest background and was, accordingly, quite unreasonably opposed to America's becoming involved in any kind of foreign entanglement. Debating affirmative on the world federal government proposition was probably the most effective method which could have been devised to make him question many of the unreasonable beliefs which he had taken for granted.

Another debater came from a progressive high school in the East, where his music courses had consisted of collecting labor union songs and where his social science courses had included marching in a picket line. His emotional attachment to unions was so strong that he believed that the salvation of the world depended on the labor movement. In his cases, debating the proposition on labor's share in the management of industry was undoubtedly an effective means of helping him to understand labor unions more objectively; an important negative contention on this proposition depended on proving collusion between labor and management. Thus, debating both sides of a proposition may be a great aid to developing objective thinking.

The third way in which debate can contribute to liberal education is

through group discussion and cooperation. Since the group discussion which precedes or follows a debate is directed toward a specific goal, it has a sense of direction which is very difficult to achieve in most other attempts to develop group thinking. The team spirit manifested in these sessions produces what is probably the most effective type of group cooperation in which a student may share.

These three aspects of a debate program constitute its most important contribution to a liberal education. If this view is accepted, it follows that the usual debate program must be given a different emphasis from that which is now customary.

First, the results of tournament debates must be regarded as irrelevant to the success of the debate program. The desire to win debates should be merely a means of motivating students to work hard enough to derive the benefits of that activity. Winning is important only insofar as it is necessary to uphold the morale of the students. There is a tendency for debate directors to try to enhance their prestige by a good record of wins, but this desire may result in losing sight of the proper objectives of the debate program.

Specifically it is to be pointed out that the debate coach should refrain from forcing students to use cases and arguments which he has devised, even though they may be better than what the students formulate. The coach's function should be to assist the students; if the coach becomes so concerned about winning that he converts his debaters into trained parrots, the value of debate has been lost.

Second, the acceptance of debate as a tool subject leads to the conclusion that students can most profitably benefit from that activity as freshmen and sophomores. If the debate program serves the purposes which this article has suggested, the debate training can be most effectively transferred to other studies, and the speech training itself can be applied to other student activities.

Most important, however, and commonly overlooked, are the limits to the value of debate. Debating is apt to engender a certain professionalism which leads students to argue either side of any question without regard to the intrinsic merits of the ideas. Such professionalism can lead either to sheer hypocrisy or to a certain paralysis of decision which prevents a person from ever making up his mind. Such a result undermines the essential purpose of education.

Here again there is a great temptation for debate coaches who are concerned about winning to overlook this problem. After spending two years coaching a student to the point where he is very successful in winning debates, the coach may find it hard to suggest that the student might profit more from directing his ability into other activities. Yet, unless the coach is willing to mitigate the value of his work, that is precisely what he ought to do.

There is, of course, a tendency for all of us to overestimate the importance of what we are doing. Debate, however, can contribute to liberal education only if its limitations are recognized. It can contribute to the mental equipment of the student, but it must not be pressed beyond its usefulness. This view entails some departure from customary debate practices, but it may lead to a more significant, if less spectacular, contribution to the educational program.

Helping the High School Student to Read Aloud

Mildred R. Thalheimer

Thousands of English teachers, teachers of speech, and coaches of plays must share countless mutual problems in attempting to teach fledglings of high school age to do fine work in the art of oral interpretation.

The goal, the best work each individual child is capable of doing, is well-nigh impossible to attain—yet it is imperative that all teachers have a clear concept of this goal which they are working for, and never relax their efforts to attain it; for the rewards are great, particularly in all the intangibles which enrich our lives and the lives of the boys and girls we train. These rewards are beneficent to an incalculable degree. Who can measure the values to the student himself, to his friends, family, and community, when he is trained in all the thinking and performing abilities which are bound indissolubly into the personality of the skilled oral interpreter?

Oral interpretation may be defined to mean reading from the typed or printed page, in any audience situation, where the reader attempts, through his own mental understanding, to voice audibly the thoughts symbolized on that page by the written word.

Reading aloud may vary from straight factual reports (weather reports, recipes, directions, etc.) to the more difficult (because requiring more interpretation) declamation, narrative prose, poetry, lyric poetry, dialogue, play reading, memorized characterization, recitals, to the essence of speech art—"Art which conceals art"—acting.

No experienced teachers will quarrel with this premise: *Most high school students are poor readers.* Why? Let us explore a few causes of their weakness in reading aloud and offer suggestions for remedial help.

1. Entrenched bad habits in everyday speech. These vary in different areas and with individuals.

Stimulate self-analysis in all students. Help them to start thinking of their own speech needs and to try to improve. Use radio and recordings to illustrate high standards of speech. Examples are: Lowell Thomas, Milton Cross, Edward R. Murrow, Robert Frost and other poets and great actors.

2. Students read trash, not good literature, by choice, and often find good literature hard to comprehend.

Establish good reading habits to replace the bad. You must start where the child is and gradually lead him to enjoy better writing. To paraphase a statement by Nicholas Murray Butler: "The best way to teach students to interpret good English is to teach them to read good English."

3. Immaturity: lack of comprehension of complex or originally stated ideas in print.

Inspire, guide, explain, and appeal to their desire: (a) to be thought older than they are, (b) to be admired by older people, (c) to think the thoughts of greatest minds.

4. Bored and lazily quiescent attitude toward new vocabulary, literary allusions, and figures of speech.

Break through their indifference. Insist upon their starting a dictionary habit, keeping vocabulary lists in notebooks, ready for inspection.

5. Students do not appreciate the value of painstaking preparation for reading aloud.

Give advance assignments scheduled far ahead; keep practice records; stress the need for working aloud, day after day. Spot those who bluff and talk about it in individual

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conferences. Praise painstaking work and individual improvement. Read for them yourself; bring in guest readers to inspire them. Ask classmates to comment on something **good** about each student's reading.

6. Lack of skill in voice production.

Demonstrate how much more attractive they look when they stand, sit, and walk properly. Encourage the use of exercises by having students lead a quick, effective drill in the classroom to stress good posture, deep breathing, and breath control.

7. Students are completely unaware of the unpleasant voice quality of the average American voice.

Teach your pupils to listen to themselves, by using tape recorders and the play-back session for study and correction. Contrast their own voice recordings with those of trained actors, poets and commentators. Demonstrate yourself. Show them that they have a musical instrument in the speaking voice which is capable of portraying every mood and thought.

8. Because they are filled with fear, beginners do not know how to establish audience contact and control.

Break down fear by establishing a friendly cordial atmosphere in the classroom. Help everyone get acquainted, know and use each others' names. Teach them not to fear tension, but to control and use it to give life to their reading. Teach them to use eye contact with just two separated members of their audience at first. Stress better preparation in advance and absolute concentration during performance.

9. Low standards of enunciation and articulation.

Practice trouble spots: endings of words, blurred phrases, inaudible down curves of voice patterns. Use choral speaking for drill; you will find it a fine tool for precision of articulation. Quote Marjorie Gullan's "speaking the words to trip on the lips, in front of the teeth."

10. High school students make feeble use of the imagination.

Stir and prod their imaginative powers until you break through their lethargy. Read poems which stimulate their powers of mental imagery. Send them hunting for passages to read which appeal to the five senses. Help them realize what word power means.

11. Young readers do not "color" the words to bring out the nuances of meaning.

Teach Whately's "Think the Thought," so fundamental that it is often overlooked. The ability of the reader to color the words with his voice by concentrated thinking is the essence of audience participation. Great actors are great because they have this ability to direct the thinking of their audience, to arouse those overtones of the soul, Goethe's "Spiritbond," the nebulous, delicate intercommunication of thinking, experience, and memories.

The high school student who can be shown even a glimpse of these complicated arts and started on his way to learn them is fortunate indeed, for he has gained something precious within himself which no one can take from him, ever.

In conclusion: Above all, give as many individual reading experiences as possible, with the greatest possible variation in the materials used. Establish for every child several successful speech experiences. Nothing succeeds like sucess! To have your pupils testify that you have helped them gain poise, self-confidence, something which they need daily throughout their lives, is worth all the effort.

Finally, point out repeatedly that all these techniques are accumulative, each helps each, that they take time, practice, will power, and perseverance. Help the beginners to see that they themselves must do the work; no one on earth can do it for them; and since they live with themselves all their lives, they reap the rewards of all effort through personal growth. Their education thus can become a continuing activity, fitting them to be of greater service wherever they go.

Men's thoughts are much according to their inclination, their discourse and speeches according to their learning and infused opinion.—Francis Bacon, *Of Custom and Education.*

Getting the Actor to Act

Glo Rose Mitchell

The director's task of getting the actor to act involves an important program in motivation. When people enjoy what they are doing, they more frequently do it well. Things which they are forced to do are attempted with indifferent minds, souls and bodies.

Directors of dramatic productions in schools, colleges and universities are producing plays with students who usually have no intention of entering the professional theater. They enter our acting classes and try-out sessions because there is within them a desire for creative expression and because they believe that they will enjoy the experiences common to the theater.

An actor is an artist employing ephemeral materials. Once he has achieved the creation of his character and presented it before the eyes and ears of his audience, his creation vanishes into memory. But, during those moments of self-mastery, an actor, as Robert Frost says, "climbs toward heaven to get away from earth awhile," and the catharsis of excellent acting is "good both going and coming back."

Good acting is no accident of fate. The exacting, detailed task of learning to act is hard mental and physical work requiring tedious hours and even tempers. The actor must be a trained technician, a master of his relations to the stage; he must constantly be aware of his relations to the audience; and he must understand completely relationships between himself and the other actors on the stage.

Blocking of action (business, exits, entrances, movements and positions on the stage) must be planned. These actions must also be explained to a novice in detail. The director must make sure that the actor understands *why* each bit of action is desirable. In other words, the actor must be *motivated* to play his part and to play it well. In order to motivate an amateur the director will do well to remember that praise frequently works much better than adverse criticism.

An actor must learn to work under an exacting rule of the theater, that of creating near perfection night after night, not just once in a while. His is a steady diet of "do it right for the first time because you're not going to get another chance." In the theater there is no going back to do it better another time. The time for an actor's best work is now, not one, two or three years from now, but now. *Tonight. This afternoon. For this audience.*

Therefore, getting an actor to act starts at the first try-out session. Enthusiasm, teamwork, cheerfulness and the will to work hard are contagious, fortunately. For this reason, the selection of a "half-and-half" cast is highly desirable. Half of the cast can be veteran actors with the qualities mentioned above. The other half can be novices. Often times the experienced actors can be of great help to the director in getting the novices to act because they teach not by lectures but by example. The novice learns to act by imitation, by adopt-

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ing suggestions from his director, and most importantly, by attempting a role which he has been motivated to study and understand.

At the second meeting the cast should be given a rehearsal schedule stating times and places of rehearsal, with a small notation opposite a specific date—"No books on stage." In this way the cast has a deadline to meet when memory work should be completed. They should know that on this date there will be no scripts on stage and no excuses accepted.

An actor can work on interpretation with a script, but he can't act until he knows his lines. After all, acting requires movement, and one-half to three-fourths of the rehearsal period should be spent in developing characterization with technical perfection. Such perfection is basic to good acting.

Rehearsal periods must be ones of diligent effort, "no horseplay," absolute concentration punctuated by short breaks for analysis, occasional laughs, food or coffee. Rehearsals should be hard work, but there should also be room for fun when everybody is having fun together.

Rehearsal periods should be frequent and not of long duration. Almost any play can be produced in a polished, finished form in four weeks, omitting Saturdays and Sundays. Rehearsal periods should last no longer than two and one-half hours; for example, from seven to nine-thirty in the evening.

At Nebraska State College the play, *The Whole Town's Talking*, a successful farce, was in rehearsal only four weeks. George Bernard Shaw's *St. Joan* was produced with the help of three assistant directors in a three week period. The play was a tremendous success.

One other point can be mentioned in getting the actor to act. Young actors should be advised to keep in character off stage as well as on during the rehearsal periods. They should keep acting every minute possible. They should make every action, every movement, every bat of an eye lash count. Every bit of business should be positive, definite, motivated and direct.

When your actors learn to *work* you will be able to keep up their enthusiasm. By motivating a cast to work hard, you can accomplish not only the improbable, but the impossible. What is more important, your students will enjoy acting—will be eager to act, because people also enjoy doing those things which they do well.

Let thy speech be better than silence, or be silent.—Dionysius, The Elder, *Fragment 6.*

Let your speech be always with grace, seasoned with salt.—The Bible, *Colossians, IV, 6*

Speech is a mirror of the soul: as a man speaks, so is he.—Publicius Syrus, *Maxim 1073.*

How many grave speeches, which have surprised, shocked, and directed the nation, have been made by great men too soon after a noble dinner, words winged by the press without an accompanying and explanatory wine list.—H. M. Tomlinson, *Waiting For Daylight* (1922)

A Course in Business Communication

Raymond H. Barnard

The definite need for effective communication in business has been stressed in recent years. The number of books and magazine articles appearing on the subject (see bibliography at end) bears witness to this fact. Nor does this statement apply merely to the traditional teaching of business correspondence or letter-writing, which has been taught over a long period of time in schools of commerce and finance and in colleges of business administration.

More recently, courses in conference methods and public speaking for business men have gained in popularity. Latest, perhaps, has been the development of reading and writing improvement centers both in the business houses themselves as in-service training, or given by nearby university faculties.

It is the purpose of this article to describe a course called "Communication for Business Leadership," which was given directly to the personnel of a large metropolitan department store at a morning hour before the employees began their daily work, for one hour, once a week, for ten weeks.

Naturally, this limitation on time meant that only a bird's eye view of the whole area of communication could be presented. There was no concentration upon any one phase of communication, such as business writing or speech, which could be courses in themselves.

At the end of the course, an evaluation form was submitted to the employees asking them not only to react to the course as a whole (that is, to what extent it was beneficial to them) but also to rank the projects in order of usefulness. The session on "How to conduct a meeting" proved to be the most popular; very close to it was the project on work attitudes and leadership. Also ranked very high were business writing and interviewing.

The general procedure followed in the teaching of the course for each session of sixty minutes was for the instructor to present a background analysis for some twenty to thirty minutes and then to open the question to discussion, or to have the students carry on some practical application of the background material. For example, in the unit on business correspondence, each student submitted a letter for analysis; in interviewing, they worked in pairs and presented first a "How not to do it" interview followed by one using correct procedure. This technique gave point as well as variety to the sessions.

For the effective writing unit, the Flesch and Gunning formulas for reading ease and human interest were cited, examples of good and prosy writing given, and vocabulary drills of the multiple-choice type were utilized much in the manner of "It Pays to Increase Your Word Power" of the *Reader's Digest.*

For the work attitudes assignment, the factors in leadership were discussed: how to be a good follower; how to get along with customers and how to handle complaints; how to work congenially with fellow-employees and with the boss; loyalty to the firm; the value of courtesy.

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Along with these items went consideration of communication for personal problems, such as counseling and guidance, supervision, suggestion boxes, bulletin boards, group conferences, etc.

This led rather naturally into conversation, listening, and reading, and from there to "How to conduct a meeting." The last named did *not* consider parliamentary law, since most of the recent research in adult education points to the need for a permissive atmosphere and informality, which parliamentary law does not foster.

Group functioning and group dynamics came in here: pointers for handling the recalcitrant members, the obstructor, the silent members, etc., were brought out. One important point emphasized was the need to set up an agenda early, to have well-defined goals, and not to jump to conclusions and discuss solutions before the members yet understood the problem in its setting. Also, some role-playing, sociodrama, and feedback techniques were utilized and could be further developed. Sociometry, although not used in this particular course, is recommended.

One objection that may legitimately be made to a course of this kind is that the sessions are not long enough to accomplish a thorough treatment of the subject for that day, nor can every one be given a chance to perform at every session.

As much as possible, group functioning was encouraged, individual speeches were brief or only certain class members were chosen to make these speeches. Sometimes this selection was based on individual needs, sometimes upon the ability of a speaker to do a project well as a good example to the others, and sometimes there was a shuffling around to give every one a chance to participate in several, if not all, sessions.

The emphasis, since the employees themselves stressed this point, was to have practicality, serviceability, and usefulness. The end-of-term evaluations indicated that this had been accomplished.

A course outline and bibliography follow:

COMMUNICATION IN BUSINESS LEADERSHIP
Outline of subject-matter to be covered at each meeting:

1. Communication—the general nature of —and need for, particularly in business.
2. and 3. Business Correspondence.
4. Principles of effective writing in business.
5. Work attitudes.
6. Listening and conversation.
7. How to conduct a meeting.
8. Interviews and committee functioning.
9. Oral reports.
10. Goodwill and/or promotional talks

Assignment 1: **Communication in business.**
Material for Discussion:
- What is communication?
  - Root meaning of term, and its application today.
  - The problem of transmission and reception.
- Communication in human relations.
- Project: Extemporaneous speeches.

Second and third meetings:
Business Correspondence.

Material for Discussion:
- Dictation: Principles and hints.
- Requirements for good business correspondence:
  - completeness, courtesy, consideration, clearness, conciseness, correctness, concreteness (after Aurner).
- Visualizing the reader.
- Collecting the raw material.
- The need for the **You** attitude: suggestions.
- First and last sentences.
- The body of the letter.
- Examples of good and poor writing.
- Shortcuts for getting more "live" language.
- Projects: Submission of original business correspondence for analysis.

Fourth meeting—**Principles of good writing.**
Material for Discussion:
- Incomprehensibility and pomposity of business prose.
- Traditional participial phrases and "deadwood."
- Need for clarity, simplicity and interest devices.

Suggestions:
- Define your audience.
- Define your purpose.
- Present your ideas in logical order.
- Use common words.
- Use short, uninvolved sentences.
- Avoid unnecessary technical terms.
- Plan your writing.
- Think logically and put ideas into logical order.
- Collect information needed.
- Write as you talk.

Patterns of writing: time order, enumeration, reasons, comparison and contrast, etc.
Avoidance of abstract terms, particularly deadwood, smothered verbs, and blunderbuss words (as used by AAF)
Cutting out wasteful words.
Vocabulary building techniques
O'Connor's study of big executives.
Application of Flesch and Gunning readability formulas to students' written work.

Fifth meeting—**Work Attitudes.**

Material for Discussion:
Understanding yourself in your job.
Relationship with other workers.
Attention to details.
Making a personality inventory.

Sixth meeting—**Listening and Conversation.**

Material for Discussion:
Difference between hearing and listening.
Recent emphasis on importance of listening.
Three elements involved: planning, listening, retention.
Frequency of use as compared with writing, speaking, and reading.
Misunderstandings that are costly in business.
Hints for good listening.
- Purposefulness.
- Outlining.
- Interpretation.
- Watching the speaker for clues; facial, gestural and postural.

Making yourself understood.
Attitudes in communication:
People do not understand if they are embarrassed; they are worried about job security; they are confused with too many ideas being presented.
People do understand if—they are at ease; they sense a sympathetic attitude.
Conversation, discussion, and public speaking.
- Occasions for use of each.
- "Conversational delivery."
- Secret of good conversation: good listening.
- Conversation: a "meeting of minds," a way of living with others.
- Hints:
  - Do not interrupt.
  - Use other person's name.
  - Build up a backlog of experiences and reading.
  - Use courtesy.
  - Have a sense of humor.

Project: Telephone conversations, followed by evaluative criticisms.

Seventh and eighth meetings—**Interviewing and Committee Functioning**

Material for Discussion:
Types of interviews: Formal and informal.
The reprimand type: suggestions for handling.
Counseling.
Handling complaints: suggestions.
Interviewing criteria:
- Should be planned.
- Courtesy required.
- Purpose of interview should be considered
- Necessity for being a good listener.

Suggestions for interviewee: Use tact, cooperation, and go beyond the "line of duty."
Committee functioning.
- Informality required.
- Following a specified order of business.
- Functions of chairmen, committee members.

Project: Practice being in a committee followed by criticisms.

Ninth meeting—**Oral Reports.**

Material for discussion:
Need for and importance of oral reports in business.
Project: Delivery of such reports.

Tenth meeting—**Goodwill and/or promotional talks.**

Material for Discussion:
Occasions for such talks.
Frequency in business.
Importance.
Project: Delivery of such speeches.

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A Philosophy for Therapists?

C. Van Riper

Dare the speech therapist seek wisdom? Dare he philosophize? Or must he always hide in the corners of the five percent level of confidence?

At one time, to be a philosopher was to achieve the ultimate. Since the time of primitive man, the wise man has been venerated, honored and worshipped, but wisdom is elusive. Philosophy is the search for wisdom as science is the search for knowledge.

But what is wisdom? When are we wise? Wisdom is the possessing of the larger look, of far-sightedness. The word seer usually implies the possession of wisdom. The wise man almost seems able to foresee the future. He has a wider outlook than most of us. He sees the present, and knows the past, but he is able, in more ways than we can muster, to choose the better path.

How does he do it? What is this special gift? Mostly, it is a way of thinking, a discipline of the mind. The philosopher, and all wise men are philosophers, hunts always for the broad view. He looks past his nose. He tries to see the whole, rather than the part.

We as speech therapists have great need for wisdom since troubled souls are placed within our clumsy hands. Our responsibility is great; our knowledge and skills are small. We can hurt as well as heal. Travis has said that the speech therapist must know everything about everything if he is to do his job well. Since we cannot, try as we must, achieve such omniscience, we must do with what we have and what we can get. But we need something else besides this knowledge, necessary as it is. We need a philosophy even more. With wisdom, even partial knowledge is less handicapping. We need the habit of the far look, the big grasp. We need the tool of wisdom-philosophy.

But these thoughts are generalities and we are a practical people. What kind of a philosophy should a speech therapist have? How should he think about his problems and himself in relation to the eternal verities, if there are any? Philosophers are difficult to pin down. Is not wisdom only an abstraction? Will we not end in the same mess as the theologians of the middle ages who argued about how many angels could dance on the point of a needle? We are leery of philosophers and philosophies. But let us look again.

There is a branch of philosophy called epistemology which deals with the nature of reality. What is the nature of the reality with which we must deal in speech therapy? Do we deal with a lisp? Or a lisper? Or an acoustically defective sibilant? If you would agree to the latter, how would you work with the case who makes a perfect *s* with a protruded tongue so noticeable that society penalizes the cosmetic abnormality? Or suppose this lisper is only 18 months old with very few teeth but possessing a mother ignorant of the development of speech? Is not our basic material here, the parental attitude? Must not

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the speech therapist deal with the culture as much as with the case? Johnson has said that stuttering begins, not in the child's mouth but in the parent's ear. The speech therapist needs to widen his horizons if he is to have the necessary wisdom to do his job. Whether he wants to or not, he must face the age-old epistemological question: "What is this before me?"

There is another branch of philosophy, one called logic, a basic discipline for thinking. But do we not deal less with logic than with psycho*logic* problems? How logical are our cases? How logical are our therapy plans? One of our stutterers could not look up during her stuttering. This was her syllogism: "I feel my stuttering is horrible. I am a human being. My listener is a human being. Therefore my listener thinks my stuttering is horrible." The application of semantics to stuttering as a basic form of psychotherapy is illustration enough of the importance of this area of philosophy to speech correction.

Or shall we consider ethics? A committee of the American Speech and Hearing Association wrestled with this problem for two years before coming up with a professional code of ethics still so imperfect that many foul deeds have been done without formal violation. How many public school speech therapists have accepted cases they did not feel they could help merely because some high school principal insisted? How much therapy was terminated just because a calendar showed that the semester was over? How many severely handicapped people have been turned over to graduate students to treat because the university clinic was understaffed?

Certainly not metaphysics, you may cry. But must not the speech therapist think on these things? How does he see himself? As a little tin god? As a painted angel of mercy? Must he not see that though he stands infinitesimally on a point at the intersection of the two immense axes of time and space, he can yet erect a perpendicular of fulfillment at that point? Can he not conceive of a billiard ball theology at least, a theology in which he bumps another human ball in a more desirable direction? Can he not thereby sense a kind of immortality, as the ball he set into motion bumps another and it another throughout eternity, yet with a merciful anonymity? Must he not face the fact of flux and change, not only in his cases, but in himself?

John Stuart Mill's old question: "Which would you rather be—a contented pig or a discontented philosopher?" is no doubt the one with which each therapist must deal. Thought is painful and wisdom comes hard. But our failures compel us to take the latter alternative. If we can have nothing else, we must at the very least echo the faded writing on a tombstone in a ghost town of the old west: "He done his damndest. Angels could do no more."

Three silences there are: the first of speech,

The second of desire, the third of thought;

This is the lore a Spanish monk, distraught

With dreams and visions, was the first to teach."—Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, *The Three Silences of Molinos*

1953 Convention
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SOME SAMPLE HIGHLIGHTS OF THE CONVENTION PROGRAMS:

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Reports on the theater in Turkey, Japan, Latin America and Western Europe should prove of unusual interest to students of contemporary theater.

The nature and theory of communication are explored in meetings led by Seth Fessenden and John Keltner. New approaches to communication are discussed by Norbert Weiner, author of **Cybernetics,** and E. L. Bernays, public relations counsel.

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D. E. Morley and Gordon Peterson will present programs dealing with problems in speech correction, audiology, and hearing rehabilitation in the public schools.

Carroll Arnold and Charles Redding will lead round table conferences on the measurement and evaluation of the results and methods of group discussion.

Criteria for evaluating debate will be drawn from critiques of a "live" debate between Fordham and Notre Dame. The five judges will be John A. Ackley, E. C. Buehler, Dallas Dickey, Joseph F. O'Brien and Brooks Quimby.

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Communications concerning memberships or subscriptions to the Journal should be addressed to: Wayne Thompson, Executive Secretary of the CSSA, University of Illinois, Navy Pier, Chicago 11, Illinois.

BOOKS IN REVIEW

TRAINING THE VOICE FOR SPEECH, By C. Raymond Van Dusen: Professor of Speech and Chairman of the Department of Speech, University of Miami . . . Director of Speech Clinic at the University. New second edition. 276 pages, 6 x 9, 27 illus., $4.00 . . . . McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

A college text which gives practical, understandable help to the student who desires to improve his speaking voice and his ability to express words clearly and distinctly. A description of the basic processes involved in speech production is included, together with chapters on ear training, vocal pitch, loudness, quality, speech rhythm, and other related topics. There are training exercises in the chapters on relaxation, posture, and breathing. A chapter on "Suggestions to Teachers" recommends approaches and techniques for use of the text in class.

MASON'S MANUAL OF LEGISLATIVE PROCEDURE, by Paul Mason: Member of the California Bar, formerly Assistant Legislative Counsel in California . . . now parliamentarian of the California State Senate and the American Legion Department of California. 640 pages, 5 x 7½, $6.50 . . . McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

A recognized authoritative guide that clears the way in legislative procedure in public bodies and gives assurance that no bill or action will be declared void for failure to adhere to legal rules. Answers almost any question of parliamentary law, in clearly stated rules backed by court decisions or by parliamentary authorities of unquestioned standing. Decisions from which rules are derived are cited. Motions and rules applicable to motions receive major emphasis, but much information also given on such topics as rules, and application of rules, officers and committees, special procedures, meetings, and legislative investigations.

BEGINNING TELEVISION PRODUCTION, by Melvin Robert White: Brooklyn College. 111 pages, 8½ by 11, photo offset, spiral bound, $2.50 . . . Burgess Publishing Company.

This new handbook is designed for the television worker who is new in the profession, TV production classes, speech and drama classes which have TV units, and the layman who wants to learn about television. It presents many techniques, tricks and the terminology used in TV. Problems of the gray scale, studio equipment, production personnel, lighting, telesets, properties, costumes, make-up, acting and directing are also considered to present and clarify the fundamentals in television work. Illustrations and photographs are included.

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20 CHILDREN HEAR 1ST TIME

Deaf Get Thrill of Lives with New Aid

BY JOHN THOMSON

A new life opened yesterday for children at the Ephphata School for the Deaf, 3150 N. Pulaski rd., where for the first time many heard a human voice, and music and laughter entering their usually silent lives produced smiles, giggles, and wonderment.

For about 20 youngsters used by school officials in a demonstration of a new auditory training unit which develops high, clear volume without distortion, and for others who will use the unit, it was an eventful day. It meant the world of sound may replace the world of silent lip reading and sign language to which they are accustomed.

Listen Thru Head Phones

The auditory training unit, developed by Jay L. Warren, Inc., of Chicago, will enable many children not only to know sound and to help develop their speech, but will enable them to take part in a home life as normal as possible considering their hearing deficiencies, school officials said.

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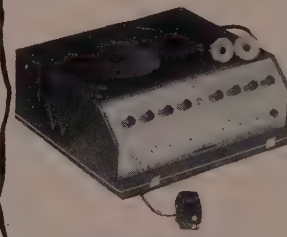

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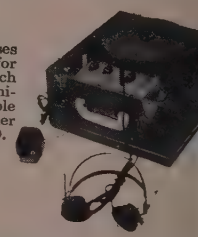

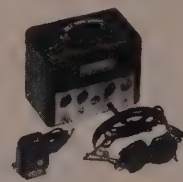

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DEPARTMENT OF SPEECH

1954 SUMMER SESSION — JUNE 21-AUG. 14

Courses *Public Speaking and Rhetorical Criticism*: Fundamentals of Speaking, Public Speaking, Advanced Public Speaking, Symposium: The Role of Discussion in American Life, Classical and Medieval Rhetorical Theory, Seminar in Public Address. *Interpretation*: Introduction to Oral Interpretation, Oral Reading of the Bible, Theory of Oral Readings. *Theater*: Fundamentals of Make-up, Scene Construction and Painting, Character Portrayal, Stage Lighting, Directing and Producing, Costume History, Shakespearean Characterization, Studies of Contemporary Theater, Studies in Theater History, Seminar in Dramatics. *Radio and Television*: Introduction to Broadcasting, Preparation of Radio and Television Continuity, Television Techniques, Radio and Television Program Policies and Management, Advanced Radio and Television Directing,History of Radio and Television. *Speech Science*: Hearing Problems of School Children, Science of Speech Improvement, Principles of Speech Correction, Speech and Language Therapy for Adult Dysphasics, Anatomy and Function of the Vocal Apparatus, Measurement in Speech Science, Seminar in Research Methods in Speech Correction. *Pedagogy*: The Teaching of Speech Correction, The Teaching of Speech, Direction of Forensic Activities, Teachers' Workshop in Radio, The Philosophy of Speech Education, Methods of Research, Individual Research, Internship in Speech Correction (at Northport), Seminar in Public School Speech Therapy, Special Research.

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